# Integration of sample cleanup methods into analytical supercritical fluid extraction

NALYTICAL SUPERCRITICAL fluid technology (ASFT) is a sample preparation technique that continues to evolve in sophistication as it is applied to a diverse number of sample types and matrices. Initial attempts to utilize ASFT for sample preparation were largely devoted to employing the technology in the extraction mode, better known as supercritical fluid extraction (SFE). SFE has been widely applied in food and agricultural analysis, 1,2 to environmental samples, 3,4 and more recently for pharmaceutical assays.<sup>5</sup> A number of collaborated supercritical fluidbased methods exist, 6.7 while others are currently being verified.

With increasing utilization. ASFT-based techniques are becoming more complex, involving other aspects of sample preparation beyond the simple SFE mode. Of particular note is the integration of extract or sample cleanup along with the basic SFE step, to yield a simplified extract composition that is directly amenable for analysis. Over

the past five years, the author's laboratory has been a key contributor in integrating the cleanup mode with SFE, particularly to yield lipidfree extracts from foodstuffs that are amenable to established GC or HPLC assays. The basic concepts involved in many of these integrating cleanup methods have their origin in chromatography, ranging from the application of the solubility parameter theory8 to normalphase chromatographic concepts. 9.10 It is particularly appropriate in this article that the author acknowledge Prof. Barry Karger, who was his Ph.D. mentor at Northeastern University, for providing some of the knowledge in separation science that led to the development of these various supercritical fluid-based cleanup options.

Techniques for simplifying supercritical fluid-derived extracts

As shown in Table 1, there are a number of ways to simplify a supercritical fluid-derived extract. These include, of course, varying the pressure, temperature, and time of extraction to yield an extract containing the target analytes of interest and a reduced number of coextractives (if there are any). More specific options, such as changing the identity of the extraction fluid, 11 have achieved some success, while fractionation according to specific solute threshold pressures 12 is also limited in applicability. Such relatively simple approaches do not always work well since the resolving power of neat SFE is limited; consequently, coupling analytical SFE with adsorbents is frequently pracTable 1

### Techniques for simplifying supercritical fluid extracts

Extraction variables: Pressure

Temperature

Time

Postextraction solvent partition

In situ adsorption: Inverse SFE

Matrix solid-phase

dispersion

Chromatography:

Adsorption mode Size exclusion mode

Complexation mode

Postextraction

trapping

Solid-phase extraction

Coupled on-line methodology

Liquid chromatogra-

Sorbent trapping

phy

Supercritical fluid chromatography

ticed. In situ adsorption methods involve adding the sorbent, usually after the sample to be extracted, to impart additional selectivity over that which can be achieved by changing the variables that control SFE. Variations in this theme include inverse SFE, which will be described later, and a supercritical fluid form of matrix solid-phase dispersion.13

The use of minichromatographic columns or cartridges in series with the extraction cell has also been reported14 and has involved retention mechanisms well known to chromatographers: namely adsorption, 15 size exclusion, 16 and complexation.<sup>17</sup> It is also possible to use these same mechanisms of retention after SFE has been enacted and the resultant extract decompressed onto a sorbent-filled trap. This postextraction trapping can include the use of traditional solid-phase extraction

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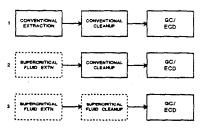


Figure 1 Integration of supercritical fluid extraction and cleanup methods into analytical methodology.

(SPE), or sorbent trapping as applied to more volatile extracted species. <sup>18</sup> Direct coupling of analytical SFE with liquid or supercritical fluid chromatography has also been reported <sup>19</sup> but not widely practiced for routine analysis. The advantage of all of these techniques relative to most liquid-based cleanup methods is the elimination of or substantial reduction in solvent use.

Sorbents that have been utilized to provide extract cleanup in SFE include many of the popular media employed by chromatographers: silica, alumina, bonded silicas, Tenax, polyurethane foams, sorbent disks, etc. Sorbents approximating those used in normal-phase chromatography have received the most use since analytes can be conveniently eluted using supercritical carbon dioxide (SC-CO<sub>2</sub>). This is consistent with the low elutropic strength of SC-CO<sub>2</sub>, even at higher pressures.<sup>20</sup>

### Adsorption chromatography coupled with SFE

Perhaps the simplest coupling of adsorption chromatography with analytical SFE is illustrated in Figure 1. Here we see a comparison of supercritical fluid analog with a conventional sorbent-based cleanup method (Method 1) for eliminating coextracted lipid interferences from targeted organochlorine pesticide residues. If one simply applies SFE as shown in Method 2, the target analytes can be successfully extracted. but a conventional cleanup technique, such as alumina or

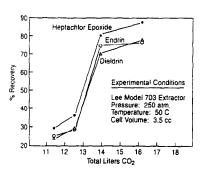


Figure 2 Percent pesticide recovery versus total carbon dioxide volume through extraction cell packed with alumina sorbent.

size exclusion, must be employed to separate the coextracted fat moieties from the pesticide analytes. However, Method 2 can be improved upon inserting an alumina sorbent bed after the extracted sample (Method 3), so that the fat is retained relative to the target pesticides using an appropriate pressure and temperature. As in normal adsorption chromatography-based cleanup systems, sorbent strength must be tempered by addition of water to the sorbent before SFE.

Use of the above normal-phase adsorption technique requires that several factors be assessed and controlled for the technique to work in the supercritical fluid mode. The analyte retention characteristics must be assessed as a function of the total quantity of supercritical fluid eluent passed through the sorbent bed to successfully capture the analytes. This is illustrated in Figure 2, where the breakthrough of three organochlorine pesticides from an alumina cleanup sorbent follows a classic sigmoidal frontal breakthrough curve for SC-CO2 at 250 atm, and 50 C. This elution pattern, expressed in terms of total expanded volume of CO2 through the sorbent bed, was accomplished using 1.8 g of alumina in a 3.5-cc extraction cell. In this case, approx. 0.2 g of sample was initially put on top of the alumina bed.

Recovery of analytes from the sorbent bed may be aided by the addition of a very small quantity of co-

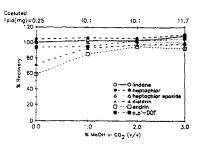


Figure 3 Effect of methanol addition on the supercritical carbon dioxide cleanup of a spiked lard extract.

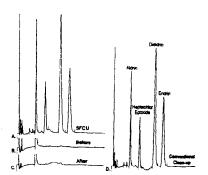


Figure 4 GC-ECD (electron capture detection) chromatograms of cleaned-up supercritical fluid extract from poultry adipose tissue (SFCU = supercritical fluid cleanup).

solvent to the SC-CO<sub>2</sub> as shown in Figure 3, for the elution of organochlorine pesticides from silica. Here, recovery of two of the organochlorine pesticides is substantially improved by the addition of 2.0% by volume of methanol in SC-CO<sub>2</sub>. However, it should be noted that adding any additional quantity of methanol to the SC-CO2 results in breakthrough of interfering lipid species, which is not desired. However, when optimized, adsorption chromatography coupled with SFE can produce results equivalent to those obtained via conventional liquid adsorption chromatography, as is nicely illustrated by the gas chromatographic/electron capture profiles in Figure 4.<sup>22</sup>

### Inverse SFE

Another useful example of integrating the sample cleanup step in SFE is the use of inverse SFE. The author initially demonstrated this

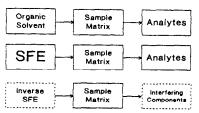


Figure 5 Comparison of inverse SFE with conventional SFE.

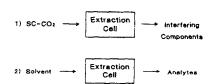


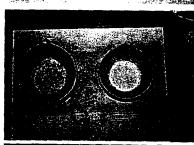
Figure 6 Operational sequence for inverse SFE.

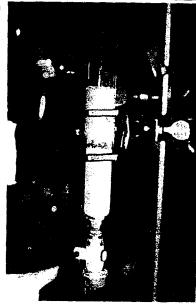
concept several years ago<sup>23</sup> and coined the term inverse SFE for this technique, which is illustrated in Figure 5. As shown in the first two sequences in Figure 5, the addition of an adsorbent into the extraction d sequence is normally utilized to yield a simplified extract containing the analytes of interest. In inverse SFE, the sorbent is added to the extraction, or in-line as a separate bed. to facilitate the removal of the interfering components from the subsequent assay. This is frequently done by using neat SC-CO<sub>2</sub> to remove the unwanted compounds, i.e., fats or other nonpolar compounds, from the sorbent bed. Then, as noted in Figure 6. a stronger solvent (perhaps a cosolvent in SC-CO<sub>2</sub>) is used to displace the target analytes from the sorbent bed.

A colorful example of this process is shown by the sequence in Figure 7. Here, a chromophoric target analyte, LGV, has been added at a very high level (100 ppm) to poultry fat for illustrative purposes (Figure 7a). The sample is then mixed with an extraction enhancer<sup>24</sup> called Hydromatrix (Varian Corp., Harbor City, CA) (contained in the center vial in Figure 7b) to produce the speckled mixture on the far right. This is then placed in the extraction vessel containing additional Hydromatrix as the adsorbent, and SFE











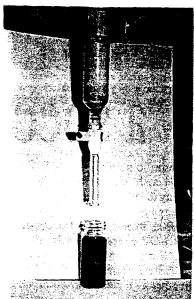


Figure 7 Inverse SFE of leucogentian violet (LGV)-spiked poultry fat followed by conventional LC elution of retained LGV.

commenced. After the interfering lipid contaminants have been removed via SFE, the Hydromatrix-is carefully removed from the high-pressure extraction cell to allow the elution process to be observed (normally this can be done in-line with the extraction cell). As noted in Figure 7c, the target analyte, LGV, has been retained on the supercritical

fluid-extracted sorbent (the Hydromatrix). This SC-CO<sub>2</sub>-extracted sorbent is then placed in a glass chromatographic column for illustrative purposes and eluted with ethanol under gravity (sequence in Figures 7d-f), to yield the desired analyte, lipid-free.

To further verify the above fractionation mechanism at a lower ana-

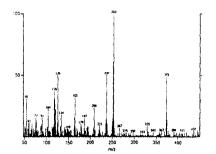


Figure 8 Electron impact mass spectrum of LGV from SFC-MS.

lyte level (5 ppm) and provide a scheme for isolating the eluted fractions, eight experiments were conducted under slightly different conditions, as reported in Table 2. Here, a trap was employed downstream from the extraction cell, packed in some cases with 4 g of silica, to help trace the elution of the LGV throughout the system. In the first three experiments, glass wool was employed in the cell rather than Hydromatrix to see if the Hydromatrix would retain the LGV under certain extraction conditions (experiments 4-8). An empty vessel (glass round-bottom flask) was also placed downstream from the trap to see if any LGV eluted off the silicafilled trap, as well as to collect any lipid extracted by the SC-CO2. As shown by the first three experiments in Table 2, glass wool in the extraction cell was not sufficient to retain the LGV moiety at pressures cited and after passage of variable volumes of CO2. Most of the LGV was found on the silica trap that was downstream from the Hydromatrixpacked extraction cell. However, by packing the cell with 12 g of Hydromatrix, with or without silica in the trapping assembly, the target analyte, LGV, was found to be retained in the extraction cell using several combinations of extraction pressures and volumes of extraction fluid. Therefore, it is feasible to obtain a lipid-free extract via inverse SFE.

Mass spectrometry coupled with capillary SFC was used to verify the identity of the analyte after extraction under the above conditions indicated in Table 2. The electron im-

Table	Table 2 Extraction/fractionation of LGV from poultry fat									
Run no.	Substrate support	Silica trap (g)	Extraction	CO <sub>2</sub> (L)	%Recovery of LGV Extraction cell Trap Receiver					
1	Gl. wool	4	10,000	250	0	65	0			
2	Gl. wool	4	5000	250	30	70	0			
3	Gl. wool	4	10,000	150	8	88	0			
4	12H	4	10,000	250	90	0	0			
5	12H	4	5000	250	90	0	0			
6	12H	NA	10,000	200	90	NA	7			
7	15H	NA	10,000	150	90	NA	7			
8	15H	NA	10,000	150	95	NA	0			

LGV concentration in fat = 5 ppm; sample size = 5.0 g; extraction temp = 40 °C; xH = grams of Hydromatrix; NA = not applicable; Gl. wool = glass wool; extraction pressures given in psi.

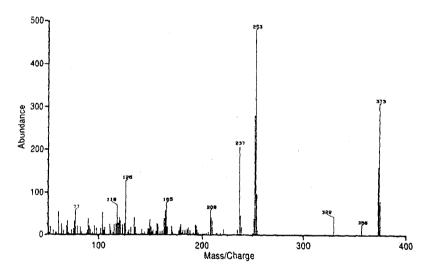


Figure 9 Electron impact mass spectrum of LGV from particle beam LC-MS.

pact mass spectra obtained by capillary SFC/MS analysis on the inverse SFE-defatted extract is shown in Figure 8. This matched well with the electron impact mass spectrum (Figure 9) obtained using particle beam LC-MS. The observed fragmentation pattern and principal mass/charge peaks are consistent with the proposed LGV fragmentation shown in Figure 10, including the molecular ion at m/e = 373 amu.

### Alternative fluids

Other fluids besides SC-CO<sub>2</sub> have been used sparingly in ASFT. This is partly because they offer limited advantage over SC-CO<sub>2</sub>,

they have some undesirable property associated with their use (e.g.,  $N_2O$ ), or their cost is prohibitive. However, for simplifying our resultant extracts, we have found fluoroform, HCF<sub>3</sub>, to have some utility due to its low propensity for nonpolar compounds (i.e., lipids).<sup>25</sup> SFE of incurred organochlorine pesticide residues in poultry fat distributed in the extraction cell on a glass bead support showed that HCF3 extracted 100-fold less fat than SC-CO<sub>2</sub> under corresponding conditions (250 atm, 50 °C, 50 mL of HCF<sub>3</sub> or CO<sub>2</sub>).<sup>26</sup> The HCF<sub>3</sub>-derived extract could then be diluted and directly injected for GC-ECD analysis of the organochlorine pesticides. The resultant

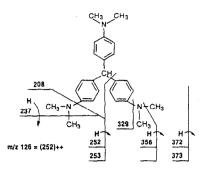


Figure 10 Electron impact mass spectrometry decomposition mechanism for LGV

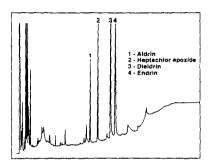


Figure 11 GC-ECD chromatogram on incurred pesticides in poultry fat using SC-HCF<sub>3</sub>.

chromatogram is shown in Figure 11, where the three organochlorine pesticides in the adipose tissue as well as the internal standard (aldrin) can be readily detected at the 1-3 ppm level, relatively free of any interferences. This is indicative of the superior discriminating power of the HCF<sub>3</sub> relative to lipid coextractives.

A rationale for this result can be seen in Figure 12, where the solubility parameters of the two fluids have been plotted as a function of pressure, relative to the solubility parameter of a major fat constituent, a triglyceride. The pressure-based solubility parameters of the two fluids were calculated according to the method proposed by Giddings,<sup>27</sup> which the authors have found useful in understanding solute-solvent interactions in SFE.28 Note that at lower pressures, the solubility parameter of SC-HCF3 is greater than that of SC-CO<sub>2</sub>, but as more pressure is applied, the opposite is true, indicating that SC-CO2 becomes the better solvent for a triglyceride molecule than HCF<sub>3</sub>. Therefore, it is not

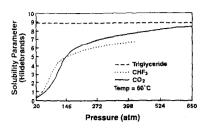
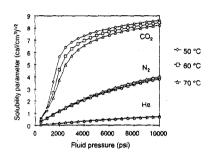


Figure 12 Solubility parameters of SC-CO<sub>2</sub> and HCF<sub>3</sub> as a function of extraction pressure.



**Figure 13** Solubility parameters of SC-CO<sub>2</sub>, SC-N<sub>2</sub>, and SC-He as a function of pressure and temperature.

surprising that an increased lipid solubility is recorded in SC-CO<sub>2</sub> relative to HCF<sub>3</sub>. This approach has been used to particular advantage by Taylor and co-workers for the SFE of specific pesticide and drug moieties.<sup>29,30</sup>

Another alternative fluid approach that has been found to be effective in fractionating lipid moieties from target analytes is the use of binary supercritical fluid mixtures. In this case, one uses a fluid that has a considerably lower critical temperature relative to the principal solvating fluid (i.e., SC-CO<sub>2</sub>), but at an extraction temperature in which both gases can be regarded in their supercritical state. This type of binary fluid mixture has less solvating power than that possessed by the neat fluid with the higher critical temperature, 31 but the binary fluid mixture does have sufficient solvating power to selectively extract trace levels of target analytes from lipid-rich matrices.32

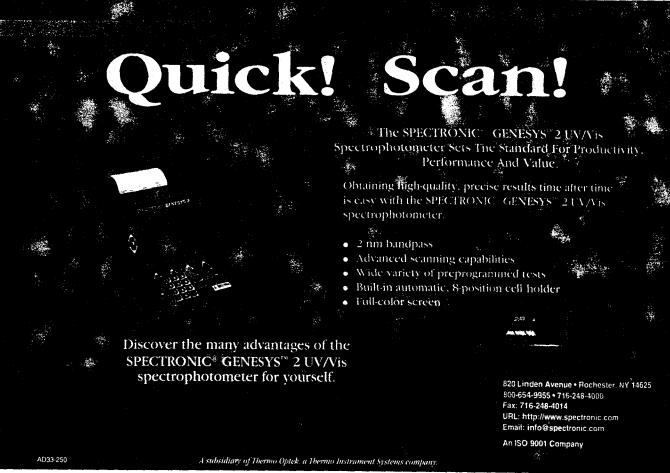
This can be better understood by invoking the solubility parameter concept, as shown in *Figure 13*, where the solubility parameters for

carbon dioxide, nitrogen, and helium have been plotted as a function of pressure. The solubility parameter in this case for SC-CO2 can become quite large with increasing pressure; however, its discriminating power with respect to target analytes such as pesticides in fatty food matrices is limited. Reduction of the applied pressure on SC-CO2 will reduce the amount of lipid matter extracted, but analyte recoveries are also reduced. As noted in Figure 12. the variation in nitrogen's solubility parameter as a function of pressure is substantially less; therefore, it was surmised based on evidence in the literature<sup>31</sup> that mixtures of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> might provide sufficient solvation for extracting trace analytes while substantially reducing the extraction of lipid material.

Proof of this is shown in Table 3, where the amount of pesticide recovered along with the quantity of lipid coextracted, as a function of fluid composition at 10,000 psi and 70 °C, is noted. Both pure CO<sub>2</sub> and a 95 mol% CO<sub>2</sub>/5 mol% N<sub>2</sub> extract 3.8 and 1.82 g of lipid under the above conditions. A composition of 20 mol% CO<sub>2</sub>/80 mol% N<sub>2</sub> extracts approximately zero fat, but as noted in Table 3, the pesticide recoveries are very low. Using an intermediate composition of carbon dioxide with nitrogen (75 mol% CO<sub>2</sub>/25 mol% N<sub>2</sub>) reduces the coextracted lipids to 110 mg, while yielding 70% recoveries of the target analytes. Further optimization of this method (8000) psi, 60 °C, 70 mol% CO<sub>2</sub>/30 mol% N<sub>2</sub>) has permitted even larger recoveries of organochlorine pesticides while reducing coextracted fat to the 12-mg level.32

#### Conclusion

In this brief review the author has tried to provide illustrative examples of how sample cleanup methods can be integrated into supercritical fluid-based extraction systems. Obviously, more than one method can yield the same result, and implementation depends on what approach is consistent with the analyst's facilities and sam-



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### SAMPLE CLEANUP METHODS continued

Table 3

## Pesticide recoveries and lipid extracted from poultry fat as a function of fluid composition

Fluid composition (mol%)
Pure CO<sub>2</sub> 95% CO<sub>2</sub>/5% N<sub>2</sub> 75% CO<sub>2</sub>/25% N<sub>2</sub> 20% CO<sub>2</sub>/80% N<sub>2</sub>

		_	=				
Lipid extracted							
(mg)	3800	1820	110	0			
	Pesticide recovery %						
Heptachlor epoxide	100	100	70	6			
Dieldrin	100	100	70	11			
Endrin	100	100	65	9			
Extraction pressure = 1	0.000 psi: ext	action temp = 70 °C	T: total mass CO	.00 ~			

ple matrix. The fractionation effects observed are highly dependent on the solvent power of the compressed fluid and its interaction with the sample matrix, and sorbent, if one is utilized. Such systems are analogous to modifications that are made in LC to control retention and resolution, and further confirm the seminal principles that govern separation science.<sup>33</sup>

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